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ABSTRACT

This study investigates factors contributing to dropping out and returning to school among urban high school students. The analysis is a preliminary attempt to determine whether state or local responses are more viable in preventing high-risk students from leaving school early, and the extent to which school practices and policies may influence these students' decision to withdraw. The study samples the responses of students in the following types of large city secondary schools: (1) "zone schools"; (2) alternative high schools; (3) high school equivalency (GED) programs; and (4) specialized "citywide" high schools for college-bound, higher-achieving students. Student response to four survey instruments were collected, and discriminant function analysis was used to evaluate the relationships among the results. In the analysis, the criterion variable is dropping out versus not dropping out, and the predictor variables are the various measures gathered. Preliminary findings challenge the belief that system-wide changes have uniform beneficial effects in all schools; instead, the need for eclectic, locally-developed programs is indicated. Career planning and work-study opportunities were strongly endorsed by respondents, suggesting the desirability of schooling responsive to the life circumstances of urban students. The paper includes two tables and three figures. A list of 25 references is appended. (AF)

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DROPPING OUT AND RETURNING TO URBAN SCHOOLS:
UNDERSTANDING WHY BOTH HAPPEN

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COLLABORATIVE STUDY ON DROPOUT REDUCTION OF AT-RISK YOUTH

This project's goal is to identify directly what personal and school factors may contribute to metropolitan high school student dropouts. This is a preliminary analysis funded by the State of Maryland to ascertain whether a state or a local response is more viable in preventing students at risk from leaving school early. With the insights of students and former students, this project hopes to begin formulating more effective strategies to reduce the number of dropouts.

Nearly all published studies cite student deviations from normal behavior and a mix of several common background characteristics as a predisposition to becoming a student dropout (e.g., Alpert & Dunham, 1986; Camayd-Freixas, 1986; Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollack, & Rock, D., 1986; Fine, 1986). This study joins others (Massachusetts Advocacy Center, 1988) in advancing the belief that schools, as institutions, contribute significantly to student decisions to quit school. If some schools are able to develop acceptable student achievement and behavior amongst their diverse student populations, then all other schools should, by modifying policies and processes, also be able to increase student learning (Massachusetts Advocacy Center, 1988). Increased student learning yields a reduced dropout rate (Holmes & Matthews, 1984). Additionally, schools and districts can implement reasonable policies and practices that will increase graduation rates. Specific input from students would help clarify the structure of those policies and practices. This research was designed and conducted to begin obtaining necessary input from two types of students--those who have dropped out and then returned to school, and those who are currently making satisfactory progress in school.

Catterall (1987) is one of many authorities justifying efforts to examine school practices that may complicate the dropout problem. Practices and policies that research shows are detrimental to students' school success are among the major causes of the dropout problem (Featherstone, 1986). In the preliminary report, the findings will be basically descriptive data based on urban participants' responses to items dealing with selected school variables. This report begins to collect information about students' school experiences and perceptions. It avoids focusing on the familiar data of family and non-school factors that prevails in much of the current literature. Also included are findings indicating those factors influencing a return to school well after dropping out. This initial analysis lays the foundation for continuing research and study concerning dropout motivators.

METHOD

Subjects

With the cooperation of the principals and directors at eleven large-city secondary schools, responses from about five hundred forty students were collected to four survey instruments. The sample included four different types of schools. Four schools are classified as zone schools (i.e., comprehensive high schools serving different neighborhood youth of varying socioeconomic status, academic ability, and vocational aspiration. The second group were four "alternative high schools" serving young people who have either returned after dropping out, or who were expelled from a zone school for poor attendance and other deportment problems. Also, a small number of these students may be low achieving, and/or handicapped educationally or otherwise. In two of these alternative schools a significant number of students are enrolled in specialized, vocationally oriented adult education programs that very often are provided in a community college setting.

The third group is composed of adults enrolled in high school equivalency programs (GED) conducted at "Manpower Centers" in or near public housing throughout the city. These students are returning dropouts. They are trying to qualify for employment by gaining an equivalency certificate and are usually females whose average age is around 37 years. Enrolled in the same type of program offered by the same agency, but meeting on a different schedule and in different classes, are dropout or expelled youth. We refer to the first group as Manpower Adults (ADULT MP) and the second as Manpower Youth (YOUTH). We merged the data from the Youth group with the alternative schools data since the two groups of young people share so many characteristics, especially the expectation that they may not finish high school.

The fourth and last group stands in sharp contrast to the preceding three groups. Nearly 100 students were surveyed in two of the specialized "citywide" high schools that serve the college-bound, higher-achieving student.

The Instruments

Four survey instruments, the Student Opinion Survey (SOS), the School Climate Survey (CLI), the Locus of Control Survey (LOC), and the Learning Style Inventory (LSI), comprised the study. The LOC survey measures a single trait, so each student has only one score. The LSI scoring procedure yields 22 subscores and a reliability estimate. The CLI device yields a total score and seven subscores.

Student Opinion Survey (SOS)

This instrument, derived from the Student Lifestyle Inventory used by Gadwin and Griggs (1985) in an intensive dropout study, asked students an array of demographic and historical questions. Sensitive items on drug, alcohol, and tobacco use, sexual history, and other personal matters that might jeopardize candor were deleted.

This study used two versions - one for returned dropouts and expelled students and the second for continually-enrolled students (inschool version). The inschool version of the SOS contains 22 questions with multiple-responses items that students rated yes or no, or sometimes rated on a Likert scale. Items covered a broad range of topics. They focused on such areas as school extracurricular activities, out-of-school interests, school subject preferences, school organizational arrangements, personal problem mentors, future plans, conflict with school regulations, courses, or personnel, and alternative instructional preferences such as mini-courses and parenting classes.

The dropout version differs only by having an additional set of questions dealing with parental reaction to their dropping out, principal reason for quitting, influence of various people and circumstances, what might have induced them to return, educational plans, parental background, and present occupation and activities.

School Climate Survey (CLI)

The CLI is a two-part, paper-and-pencil questionnaire of ninety yes/no and multiple choice items. This survey is based on the CFF's multi-dimensional definition of climate that states "school climate is the prevailing feeling or personality of the environment as influenced by human interaction, physical surroundings, organizational structures, and events" (Fox, 1973). Dimensions measured include Affective, Academic, Social, and Physical. Total reliability is $r=.919$ and $r=.847$ for Part One, Affective Indicators. After piloting the use of this instrument on a dropout sample, participants recommended that only thirty items of the affective section be used. Eight qualities comprise this section: 1) respect, 2) trust, 3) morale, 4) opportunities, 5) continuous academic and social growth, 6) cohesiveness, 7) caring, and 8) school renewal.

Learning Style Inventory (LSI)

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1975, 1978, 1984, 1986) assesses individual learning style through self-report in grades 3 through 12. The inventory is composed of 104 true/false items and takes about thirty minutes to complete. Administration can be individual, group, oral or silent. The Oral-Group Administration was used in this study. The LSI surveys individuals' preferences in each of twenty-two different areas. The LSI was developed through a content and

factor analysis. Test-retest reliability was established on all variables, with total reliability $r=.77$.

Locus of Control (LOC)

Developed by Norwicki and Strickland (1974), the Locus of Control Survey consists of forty yes/no items. The authors recommend a shorter version of twenty-one items to reduce administrative time. Reliability and validity was established in 1973.

Descriptive Findings and Implications

Initial and preliminary analyses of data involved two types of procedures. First, descriptive analyses examining data distributions were conducted. Second, a multivariate discriminate function analysis examining preliminary relationships between and among the instruments and the criterion of dropout status was applied.

Retention in Grade

Table one shows an association between grade repetition and high school placement. Students who experienced frequent grade repetitions are from the alternative (Altern) schools. Note that only 11.5% of them were never retained (top row) while the other schools' students had nearly half or more of their students in that category. Also note that 88.5% of alternative schools young people had been retained between one and three times.

Table 1- Percent of Students Retained in Grade

TYPE OF SCHOOL									
Times Retained	Zone N		Altern N		Adults N		City-W N		Total N
0	47.5%	77	11.5	23	45.0	36	74.7	74	38.8 210
1-2	52.5	85	80.5	161	53.8	43	25.2	25	58.0 314
3	0.0	0	8.0	16	1.3	1	0.0	0	3.1 17
Total	29.9	162	37.0	200	14.8	80	18.3	99	100.0 541

Interestingly, adults experienced far fewer grade retentions than their younger schoolmates in similar GED programs. Just as in the zone schools (52.5%), only a bit over half (53.8 and 1.3%) repeated a grade or more (column headed "Adults", Table 1). These more mature returning dropouts had left school 10 years ago, came from poorer homes and neighborhoods, and from urban or poor rural districts. Despite those descriptors, they could still return to the classroom. It is possible that the low rate of grade retention accounted for their confidence in reentering a classroom later in life.

The implications for grade retention need critical study at the local level. General research for instance, indicates little support for the policy of retention (General Accounting Office, 1986; Gredler, 1984; Hahn, 1987; Holmes & Matthews, 1984;

Leinhardt, 1980; Smith & Shepard, 1987). Indeed, most studies on retention strongly suggest that it harms pupils and rarely benefits anyone. In the few instances where promotion, despite teacher recommendations for retention, took place, it was found that between grades one and three the noted "immaturity" and achievement differences disappeared. Moreover, in situations where pupils were promoted rather than spending an extra year in "transition classes" they performed better than those who completed a "transition year" (Gredler, 1984; Smith & Shepard, 1987). This study corroborates findings suggesting that the more often a student is retained, the greater the chances are that the student will drop out.

Locus of Control, School Climate, and Student Opinion

Table two shows the findings from the 1) School Climate Survey (CLI), 2) Locus of Control (LOC) instruments, and 3) the Student Opinion Survey (SOS). The percent column shows what proportion of the students in each type school rated the item above average on a variable or the proportion who agreed with a statement about their school. The letter "N" heads columns showing the actual number of students who agreed with or gave an above-average total rating on that item in the survey.

Table 2: Student Opinions Survey by School Type

VARIABLE	ZONE		ALTERNATIV		ADULT MP		CITYWIDE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Loc. Cont.	73	45	101	51	31	39	54	55	259	48
Climate	74	46	89	45	41	51	74	75	278	51
Career Pln	94	58	102	51	50	63	48	49	294	54
Wrk Stdy	54	33	63	32	49	61	25	25	191	35
Adptd Stdy	67	41	83	42	45	56	55	56	250	46
Survl Skls	23	14	43	22	27	34	25	25	118	22
Voc/Tech	61	38	90	45	39	49	13	13	203	38
Caring Stf	80	49	133	67	62	78	49	50	324	60
Fewer Clss	52	32	58	29	6	08	46	47	162	30
Parntg Crs	28	17	30	15	23	29	14	14	95	18
Ss Sel Cls	121	75	113	57	42	53	67	68	343	63
Clstrm Frdm	81	50	92	46	15	19	63	64	251	46
Safe-Schl?	92	57	102	51	47	59	55	56	296	55
TOTAL	162	30	200	37	80	15	99	18	541	100

Locus of Control

Zone school students (ZONE column in Table 2) and manpower adults viewed life as controlled by external forces (See row 1 of Table 2, Loc. Cont.). Only 45% and 39% respectively indicated above average, or internal, ratings on the Locus of Control Survey.

These initial distributions suggest that for the remaining members of those groups, the majorities (55% and 61%) believe that external events, not their own efforts and plans, control what happens to them. These differences between school groups are merely suggestive and probably reflect a larger-than-ordinary degree of diversity among zone school students. Varying socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds may account for this. However, 61% of the adult members believe that external causes account for personal fortune, indicating a considerably larger, more uniform philosophical view of causality. Returning to school for a High School diploma may appear to contradict a view of external causality, but when employers and society require a High School diploma, then an external view of causality is a motivator to complete schooling. Ironically, among the extreme cases on the academic success dimension, alternative school students and the citywide students each regard themselves as responsible for their own success and failure (51% and 55% respectively on the Locus of Control Survey).

Climate - School Totals.

The School Climate Survey scores present data from a different perspective. Fifty-one percent of the adults in this study believe a positive climate exists at their school (ADULT MP col., Table 2). The younger alternative (Alternativ col., Table 2) students perceive a positive climate less often-- only 45% of the time. One explanation for the similar climate response patterns resides in the retention history of these two groups.

The zone schools' climate rating (46%) falls between the alternative schools' and the Adult MP averages. Finally, the highest climate scores of all (75%) appear in the citywide schools. This may reflect the fact that these students generally have had a positive history of school success and could choose the school they attended, which acts to sustain their positive perceptions.

Climate Subscale Profiles

Figure 1 (Appendix) shows the School Climate Survey subscores. There are seven subscore areas: Cohesiveness, COHES (degree of school spirit); High Morale, HIGH MOR (pride in school membership); Respect, RESPECT (an accepting attitude toward all other people in the community); Trust, TRUST (confidence in fair, honest treatment from all school members); Caring, CARING (school is sensitive to the needs of its members); Opportunity for Participation, PARTIC (equal chance for all to learn and grow); Opportunity for Input, INPUT (equal chance to present ideas to all governance bodies of school).

Climate subscores often yield more usable information than do total scores for planning specific school improvement activities. Students can express opinions about seven components that make up the climate of their schools (See Figure 1). In this study, urban students indicate a definite lack of reciprocal trust (TRUST) and further state that their suggestions for policy

formation and change are routinely ignored in their schools (INPUT). These two area graph points are the lowest of the seven. On an average, students agreed with statements in these two areas only about half the time (See under TOT in the table on Fig. 1; TRUST = 5.01 & INPUT = 5.14). At the same time students respond with a high degree of "cohesiveness" (COHES = 7.46 Fig. 1) that illustrates their need for peer support.

Catterall (1987) found a similar phenomenon with at-risk high school students who were segregated for intensive group counseling and other special but non-academic treatment. These students obtained lower grades than before, developed more negative attitudes toward school, and indicated increased readiness to drop out. However, their group fellowship (cohesiveness) scores increased significantly. Their new level of group awareness parallels their greater disaffection with the institution. Catterall cautions that the school might better focus on improving academic skills for all its students rather than attempting intensive pullout intervention programs with targeted secondary students.

Although subscore patterns were similar overall, subscore differences varied, depending upon the kind of school a student attended. Students attending citywide schools perceive their climate more positively even in the areas of cohesiveness, opportunities for participation, and opportunities for input (the line of short dashes). These students respond more positively about their sense of togetherness and opportunity for growth than do students in any other school category. But even these students perceive themselves excluded from policy and the rule-making process in all school activities.

The climate analyses indicate that dropout reduction planning may require a multi-step procedure. That is, better decisions can be made when global data is disaggregated by various categories that may yield differing responses from respondent groups. Students in the different school categories in this study perceived school with a mixture of results. Further, the eleven schools also showed marked variations in responses. Figure 2 illustrates the school variations on the total school climate score. As can be seen, zone schools showed the greatest variations. By contrast the citywide students, more homogeneous in background and in academic aspirations with their school of choice, showed the least variation. Hence, we see very high climate total scores (75%), but with differences on the subscale profile. Anderson (1985) cautions that school staff make very certain before they plan changes based on school climate that they know the nature of their student subgroups who may differ in perceptions of the same institution.

Student Opinion Survey

In this initial analysis, those variables related to student perceptions about their school experiences will be discussed. The following sections address each of these variables in sequence (see Table 2).

Career planning. Regardless of setting, large numbers of students perceived that schools should give more attention to career planning. Ratings ranged from 49% to 63%. All students seem to be concerned about how their studies relate to the world of work. Student responses signal to educators that sufficient orientation to the world of work would satisfy this need. Additionally students would benefit from bridges between school assignments and work realities. Surely strategies exist, or could be developed, to demonstrate how, for example, algebra principles apply to everyday-life situations.

Work Study. The adult group requested an opportunity to combine paid work with study (61%). Other student groups seldom made this request (25%-33%). Given the age and responsibilities of the older group, this is not a surprising request.

Adapted Study and Fewer Classes. Interestingly, adults and citywide students endorsed the idea of modifying the time allocated to a complete course (56% and 52% versus 41% and 42% in zone and alternative). It may be that the students who have experienced more school successes are aware of and reflective about circumstances affecting their learning. Citywide school students also would prefer "Fewer Classes."

Survival Skills, Vocational/Technical, and Parenting Courses. The emerging pattern on these variables are related to the needs of adult students. They chose survival skills, vocational/ technical and parenting courses, plus work/study, with a higher frequency than any other group. These mature students seem more directly affected by the "real world". Learning how to manage a household budget, care for children, and acquire marketable skills are vital concerns for adults and not the mere abstractions they may be for younger students.

If teens could assume more responsibilities outside the school and home, they too might develop an appreciation for such learning. One possible approach might be to offer them a chance to engage in meaningful community service. Maryland is among those states pioneering such programs, permitting high school students to meet graduation requirements partly through community service (Townsend & O'Neill, 1988).

Caring Staff. A caring school faculty is a major concern for most urban students (Caring Stf; 60% in the TOT column, Table 2). This concern is rated just below self selection of courses (Sel Cls). Alternative school students and adults cited a Caring Staff more frequently as a desirable feature than any other change in their school experience (67% and 78% respectively). It appears that students who have had more difficult school experiences need a more caring school staff. Adult students strongly endorse (78% rate), the value of a caring, giving staff. It appears that the adults appreciate the manpower center staff, who are sincere and dedicated instructors.

Students Select Classes and Want Classroom Freedom. Not all groups perceive self selected classes and classroom freedom (i.e., participation in classroom decisions) in the same way. For example, zone school students endorsed the need for self-selected classes (Sel Cls) more often than any other item in the list (75%). Classroom Freedom, however, (Clsrm Frdm) was selected only half the time (50%). Meanwhile, citywide students chose both statements more enthusiastically (68% and 64%). By contrast, the adults seem to interpret classroom freedom more negatively. Only one in five (19%) agreed it was needed more often in their schools. However, along with the younger students, they also want the right to select classes (53%). Alternative school students produced no clear trend for or against on these two variables (57% and 46%). The differences in academic circumstances among the students in these schools may account for these relatively neutral results.

Indeed, the alternative students may not constitute a group of similar individuals in the ordinary sense. Since alternative school students do not select the schools they attend, they are instead a collection of people gathered together in the same buildings more for administrative and instructional convenience and economy. The diversity of such alternative school students suggests that school-based dropout reduction studies and programs should take care to distinguish subgroups within institutions who differ fundamentally in relevant educational characteristics from each other.

School Safety. In this study, students express ambivalence toward safety issues. No distinction appears among the four types of schools. For each school, half the students are concerned with safety and half are unconcerned with it. It appears that half of the students in our sample indeed believe that being in school poses a threat to their safety.

Learning Style Inventory

The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) appears sensitive to environmental influences. Large differences in average scores on certain of the LSI "factors" on the survey appeared between many of the schools in the sample. If the instrument is a valid measure of personal traits, then the preferences expressed by a population of students should be distributed randomly. On most of the scales (LSI factors or subscales), however, the entire City departed from the expected average standard score of 50 and standard deviation of 10. Further examination of the eleven schools shows wide differences in student responses based on individual school average scores (see Figure 3). Considerable variability existed among the eleven urban schools with different schools deviating from the publishers norm on different items. For example, on some scales, school averages were within the 5% probability limits derived from the standard error of the mean, on others they were not. Only six subscales came close to the "national norms" and even here individual schools showed marked variations. The six subscales closest to the national norms are Persistence, Structure, Late morning, Mobility, Parent Figure

Motivated, and Teacher Motivated. The solid line graph (labeled TOTAL) shows the average score obtained by all 536 students in this part of the study. All the remaining scales exceeded that limit.

Among the eleven schools taking part, certain ones yielded the highest (dash-dot line) and lowest average scores (dashed line) on individual learning style subscores. For example, visual preference (61.0) is the very highest mean, (from tables of averages to left of graphs). This score came from one particular school in our set of eleven. Parent presence was the lowest average (41.0). The variations amongst schools, therefore, precludes clustering of school categories for analysis. Recommendations about learning styles appear to be site-specific.

FINDINGS FROM DISCRIMINANT FUNCTION ANALYSIS

Which of the many measures collected can serve best to predict who may drop out and why? Good answers to this question position schools to make the most helpful changes that encourage high-risk students to finish school.

An answer to this critical question will involve determining the relative strength of certain factors impinging on students that push them to leave school without a diploma. To evaluate the huge array of scores gathered requires an analytic tool suitable to the task. The selection of Discriminant Function Analysis permitted examination of the relationships between and among the measures collected.

Discriminant Function Analysis required two "sets" of variables: the predictor variables and the criterion variables. In the case of this study, the criterion variable is dropping out versus not dropping out. The predictor variables are the various measures gathered and discussed earlier. The critical question is which of the predictors can successfully separate the dropouts from the non-dropouts. If such a set of measures can be identified and the relationships among those measures qualified, then school personnel will have a powerful planning tool in working with students.

The earlier sections of this study explored the predictor variables. The criterion variable of dropping out deserves some attention. Some of the participants in this study had been dropouts and returned to school. Some of the schools in this study were quite different from other schools and had "push-out" students. Yet, use of either of these criteria to establish an operational definition for dropout seemed unsupportable. Therefore, an alternative judgmental technique was used. In this case, school officials were asked to "judge" which students in the study had the "highest risk" of dropping out, as contrasted with those with the lowest risk. Use of judgments has been a technique used on many occasions. Clearly, the school official responsible for each group of students is in the best position to

make an informed judgment. Only future events can determine the degree of accuracy of these forecasts.

The question of interest becomes, "can the discriminant function analysis show any results when the criterion (e.g., judgment by 'experts') is used?" One can posit that this is a more rigorous test of the data than if one knew the actual dropouts! This is because the amount of error present in judgments should be higher than reality, thus decreasing the predictability. If the discriminant function analysis can isolate any relationships among so much error variance, it should serve as fruitful ground for further exploration in later studies and analyses.

Indeed, such relationships were found. Using predictor measures for Retention In Grade, Students Choosing Classes, Caring Staff, and a "Yes" to the question "I expect to be in high school next year", it is possible to classify into the judgments made by school officials seven out of each ten students in the sample.

Much further work needs to be done testing the statistical strength of the relationships among the measures. Considering the size of the sample, the number of measures, and the amount of error variance in the criterion, it is encouraging in this preliminary work to obtain such positive results.

CONCLUSIONS

Our preliminary findings indicate some tentative directions for state and local decision makers. In this study, local research challenges the belief that a few changes applied in all schools in a system will have the same beneficial effect across the system. Our findings suggest as well that schools within the same local education agency (LEA) also vary significantly when environmental variables such as learning styles and school climate are measured. More specifically, findings indicate that on a learning styles instrument that was designed to estimate student personal preferences for environmental variables such as type of furniture, room temperature, amount of light and so on, the results were remarkably different from school to school.

Not only from school to school but within the same building, substantial variation exists in approaches to students whose age or other characteristics suggest their probability of becoming a dropout. Catterall (1987) highlights a critical need when he says "... eclectic, locally-developed programs are needed" (p. 522). In citing a host of sources he makes an eloquent plea that school practices be modified in rational ways to help keep students in school to graduation.

Career planning, more than any other suggested curricular change, wins the widest endorsement by students in this study. Regardless of institution or age of respondent, ways to prepare better for the world of gainful employment was mentioned frequently as a desirable school offering. Also, half of the

students in citywide schools and those in the GED preparation programs wished for fewer courses or for an altered study pace.

Finally, the students in the Manpower Centers offer some indirect advice about how to make schooling more relevant and perhaps manageable. Work/study opportunities, they believe, would have improved their chances for school success and possibly their persistence in pursuing a diploma. Their suggestions are consistent with the views of many educators. Perhaps these responses reflect a need for altering the content, instructional techniques, and structure of formal schooling to make it more responsive to and consistent with the life circumstances of urban students. Perhaps the best guidance a state agency can and should share with local school districts is that local research should drive local practice.

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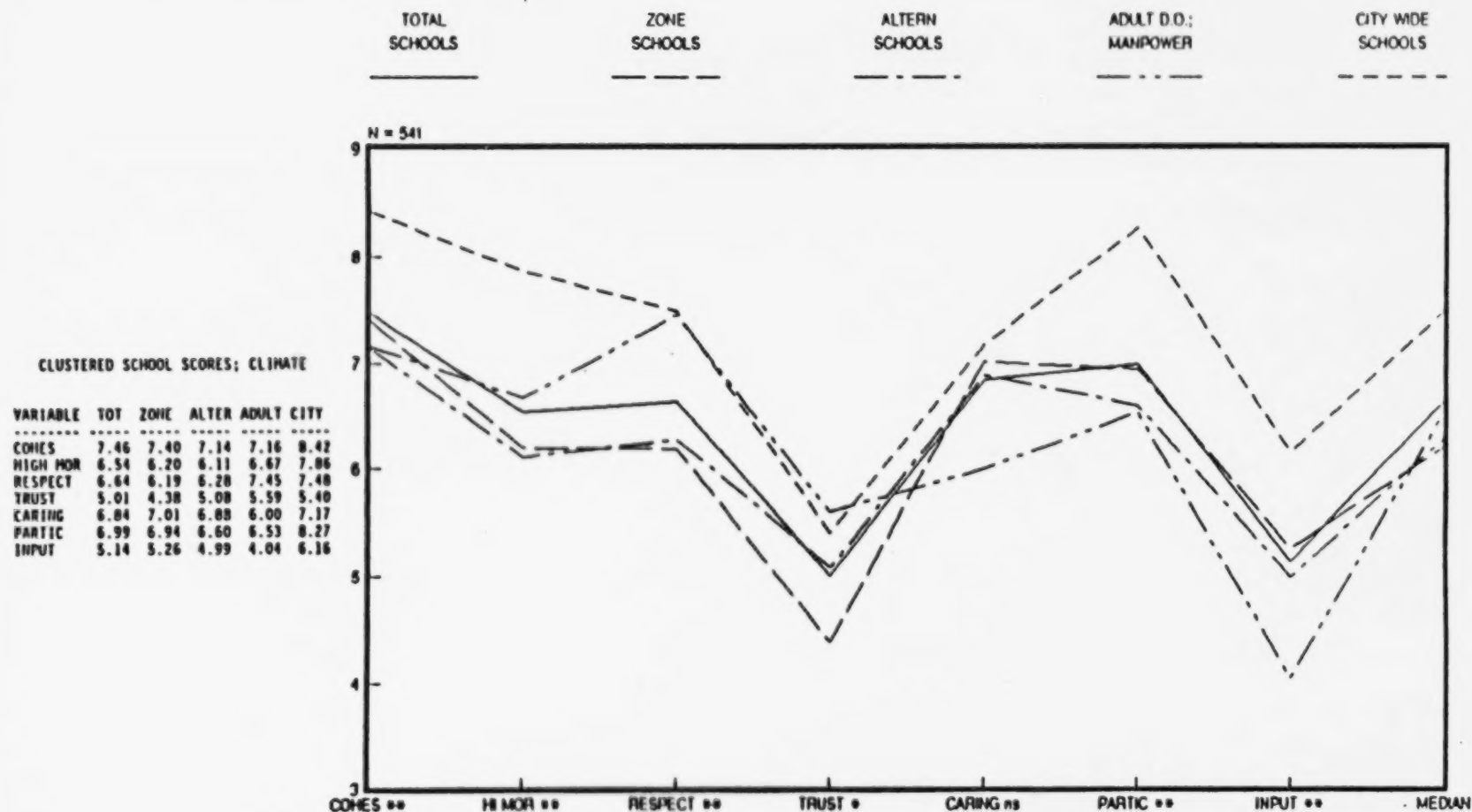


FIGURE 1: Average Ratings by Students in Eleven Metropolitan Schools on the Seven Subcales of the School Climate Survey, (1987).

Note: *= $p < .01$ using the normal curve deviation from the mean based on the standard error of the mean. NS=nonsignificance.

TOTAL

LOW AV

HIGH AV

		TOTAL	LOW	HIGH
1	NOISE	47.1	42.8	50.8
2	LIGHT	54.0	51.1	58.4
3	TEMP	47.0	42.0	51.4
4	DESIGN	52.5	48.3	54.0
5	MOTIVN	52.7	45.4	55.2
6	*PERSIS	49.3	44.3	50.8
7	RESPONS	53.5	49.4	58.4
8	*STRUCT	50.4	44.8	54.8
9	ALONE/PEER	45.8	42.7	50.7
10	AUTH FIG	48.2	43.3	53.0
11	LRN SEV WAY	45.4	42.8	48.7
12	AUDTRY	51.0	47.7	54.8
13	VISUAL	53.0	47.8	61.0
14	TACTILE	45.4	42.8	48.1
15	KINSTH	51.5	46.8	55.1
16	INTAKE	47.9	43.0	50.8
17	EVE/MORN	52.4	48.5	55.3
18	*LATE MORN	50.5	48.0	55.3
19	AFTERNOON	51.3	47.1	54.7
20	*MOBLTY	49.8	41.8	54.2
21	*PARNT PRES	50.1	41.0	54.0
22	*TCHR MOTVD	50.3	44.8	53.0

*DENOTES A
VARIABLE
CLOSE TO
NATIONAL
NORMS: $p < .05$

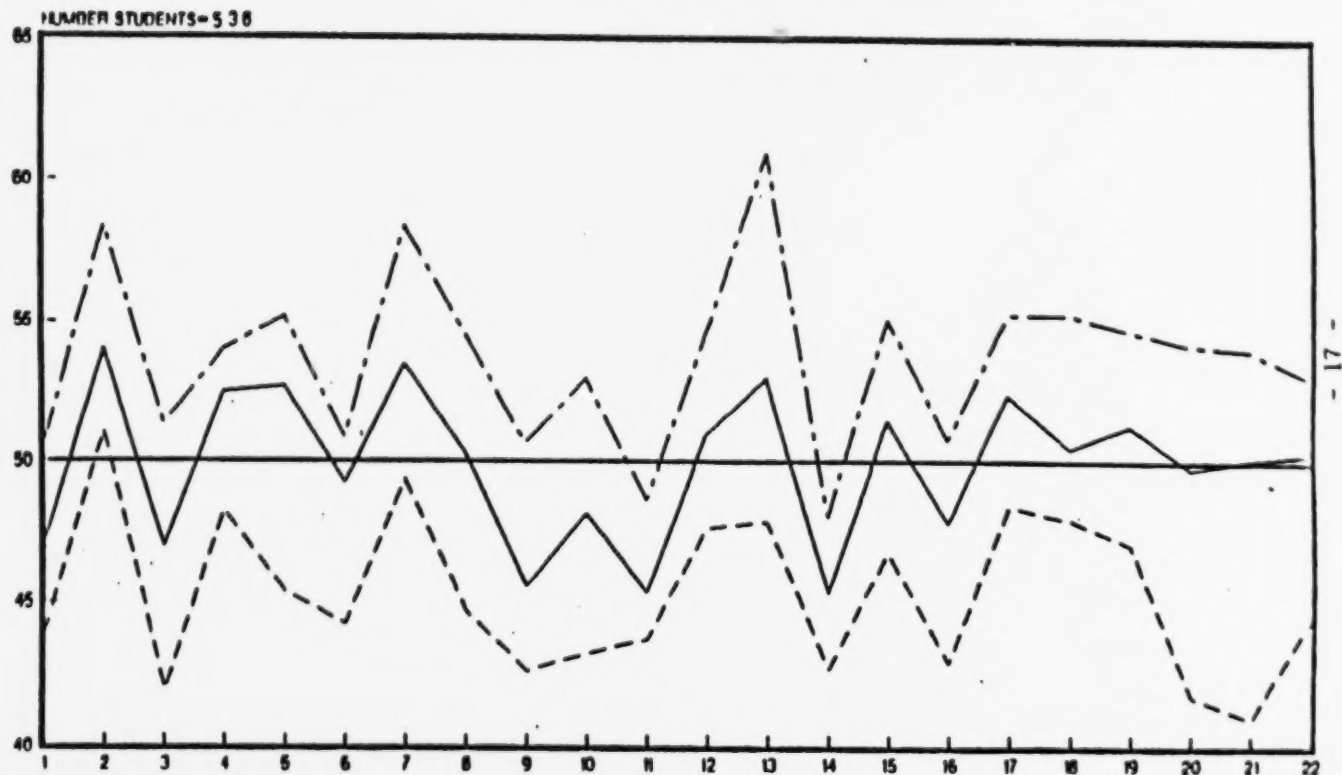


FIGURE 3: Highest, Average, and Lowest Ratings by Urban High School Students on the Subscales of the Learning Styles Inventory.

CLIMATE SCORES

<u>SCHOOL</u>	<u>SCORE</u>	<u>TYPE</u>
A	4.05	Z
B	4.29	Z
C	3.93	Z
D	4.49	A
E	4.71	A
F	4.09	A
G	4.34	M
H	4.15	A
I	5.04	C
J	5.11	C
K	4.91	Z

Z= Zone school
A= Alternative
M= Adult MP
C= City-wide

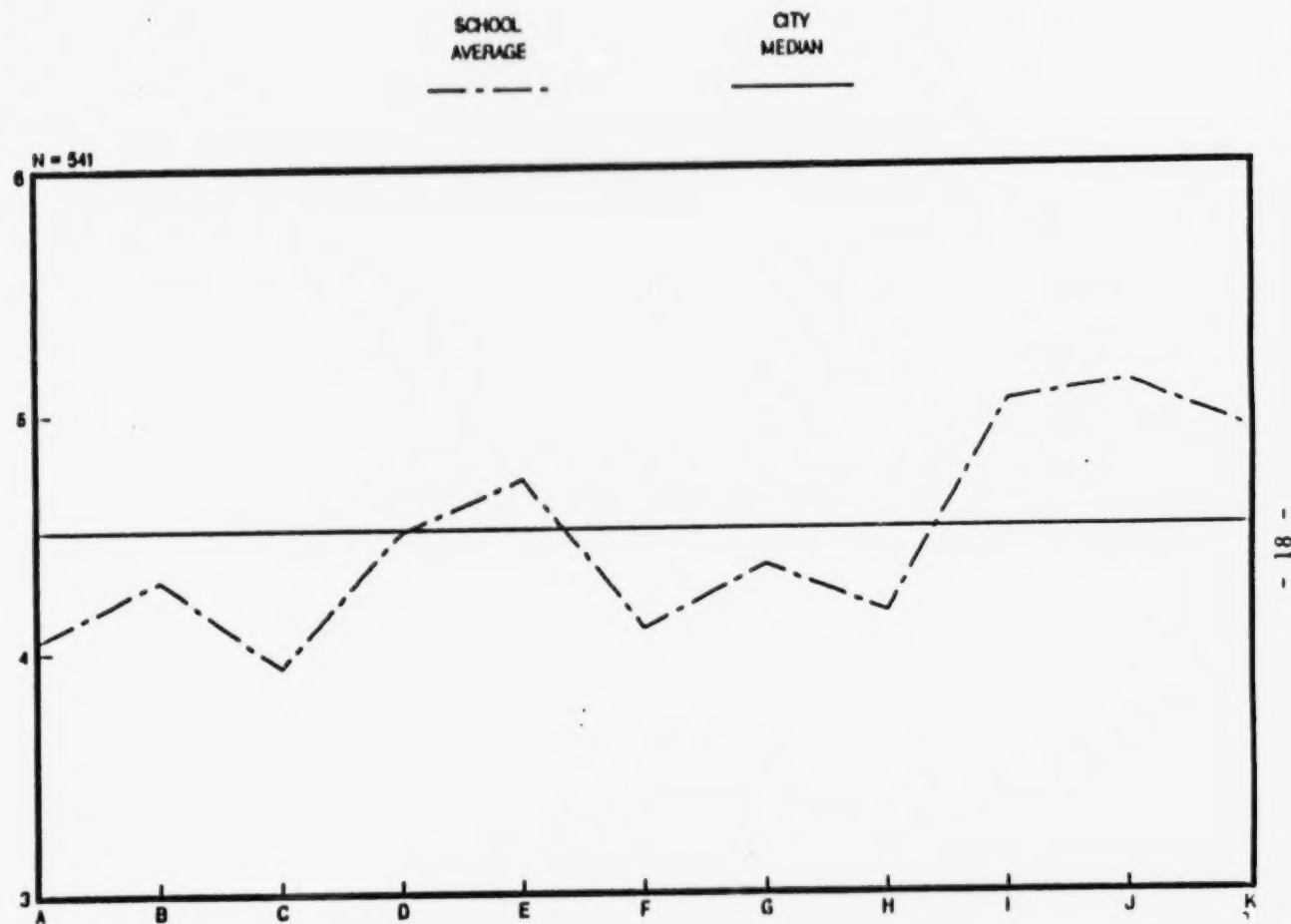


FIGURE 2: School Variations on the Affective Section of the School Climate Survey